

# Passivization of Verbo-nominal Structures in English

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## **ABSTRAKT**

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá pasivizací verbonominálních vazeb v anglickém jazyce. Vzhledem k tomu že verbonominální vazby obsahují dva předměty, umožňují dvě pasívní konstrukce. Pomocí Britského národního korpusu a Korpusu současné americké angličtiny zkoumá výskyt jednotlivých druhů pasívů a na základě výsledků konstatuje, jaká kritéria možnost dvojího pasívu ovlivňují či naopak. Závěr práce je věnován srovnání mezi britskou a americkou angličtinou a porovnání s jinými studiemi.

Klíčová slova: předmět, pasivizace, vnitřní pasív, vnější pasív, dvojí pasív, verbonominální vazba, sloveso, podstatné jméno

## **ABSTRACT**

This bachelor thesis deals with the passivization of verbo-nominal structures in English. As these verbo-nominal structures contain two objects, they allow two passive formations. Using British National Corpus and Corpus of Contemporary American English, it finds out the frequencies of the two possible passive types and based on the results it specifies which criteria influence or do not influence the possibility of double passive formation. At the end, the thesis focuses on the comparison of BNC with COCA and also on the comparison with other studies.

Keywords: object, passivization, inner passive, outer passive, double passive, verbo-nominal structure, verb, noun

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# CONTENTS

<b>INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>I THEORY .....</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>1 PASSIVE VOICE IN ENGLISH.....</b>	<b>12</b>
1.1 Verb as a part of speech.....	12
1.2 Voice as a verb category .....	13
1.3 Features of the passive voice .....	13
1.3.1 Syntactic features.....	13
1.3.2 Semantic features.....	15
1.4 Functions of passive .....	16
1.4.1 Deagentivization.....	16
1.4.2 Rhematizing the Agent .....	18
1.5 Types of passive.....	18
1.5.1 <i>Get</i> passive.....	18
1.5.2 Double object structures .....	19
1.5.3 Prepositional passive .....	20
<b>2 VERBO-NOMINAL STRUCTURES .....</b>	<b>22</b>
2.1 General characteristics of verbo-nominal structures .....	22
2.1.1 Nominal part.....	23
2.1.2 Verbal part .....	24
2.2 Classification of verbo-nominal structures .....	25
2.2.1 Group I: V+NP.....	25
2.2.2 Group II: V+NP+P .....	26
2.2.3 Group III: V+PP.....	27
<b>3 INNER AND OUTER PASSIVE.....</b>	<b>29</b>
<b>II ANALYSIS .....</b>	<b>30</b>
<b>1 METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH.....</b>	<b>31</b>
<b>2 RESULTS .....</b>	<b>32</b>
2.1 Criteria considered in relation to the possibility of passivization.....	33
2.1.1 Preposition.....	33
2.1.2 Verb .....	35
2.1.3 Noun .....	36
2.1.4 Frequency .....	40



2.2	Comparison of BNC and COCA .....	42
2.3	Comparison with other results .....	45
	<b>CONCLUSION .....</b>	<b>47</b>
	<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY .....</b>	<b>49</b>

## INTRODUCTION

This bachelor thesis is called Passivization of Verbo-nominal Structures in English and as such deals with the possibility of double passive transformation of these complex predicates. It is divided into theoretical and practical part.

In terms of theory, the first chapter called Passive voice in English briefly describes the category of verb and voice and characterizes the basic features and functions of the passive voice. It also deals with the specific types of passives. The second chapter is focused on verbo-nominal structures, its typical characteristics and classification. Finally, the third chapter Outer and Inner passives discusses the double passive transformation related to the verbo-nominal combinations.

The practical part is based on the analysis of British National Corpus and Corpus of Contemporary American English and finds out the frequencies of the two possible passive types. The first chapter describes the methodology of the research and specifies the steps which the research involved. The second chapter includes the results obtained from BNC and COCA in the form of tables. On the basis of these results, it considers various criteria and finds out which of them are relevant in terms of passivizability of these verbo-nominal structures. The last chapter compares the results from BNC with the results obtained from COCA and is also focused on the comparison with other related studies.

As will be discussed in theoretical part, verbo-nominal structures can permit two passives as they include two objects. The first type of passive is often called inner passive as the subject of the passive sentence becomes the noun which is part of the combination. The second passive is outer passive due to the fact that the prepositional object is passivized. Importantly, some verbo-nominal structures do not allow passive at all, some permit both types of passive and some of them can be transformed only into one type, inner or outer. The aim of this thesis is to find out the possibility of passivization of these verbo nominal structures based on the selected examples and summarize the criteria which affect their passive transformation.

## **I. THEORY**

# 1 PASSIVE VOICE IN ENGLISH

## 1.1 Verb as a part of speech

In general, Dušková (2003, 165) defines the verb as “a word representing action or state.” According to Quirk et al. (2004, 50-51), the verb is considered as the most “central” element of a clause. Firstly, it is because of its position, which is “normally medial rather than initial or final” and which is quite strict comparing to other clausal elements. Taking into account also the syntactic position of subject and object, this is partly the reason of why is English often seen as a “fixed word-order language” (Quirk et al. 2004, 50-51). In terms of standard word order, verb cannot be easily moved from its usual position, as seen in the examples:

- (1) *I really **admire** people like him.*
- (2) *\***Admire** I people like him really.*
- (3) *\*I really people like him **admire**.*

Secondly, the presence of a verb is essential in a regular sentence. Apart from that, the verb decides other obligatory complementation of a clause (Quirk et al. 2004, 50).

Verbs can be categorized into three main groups based on their function in a clause (Quirk et al. 2004, 96):

- **full verbs**, such as *go, break, or speak*
- **primary verbs** *be, have and do*
- **modal auxiliary verbs**, for example *will, should, can* etc.

The verb as a part of speech is established on the basis of its grammatical categories and the function it performs within the clause. Verb forms can be divided into two groups, **finite** and **non-finite**, where finite verbs can express all their grammatical categories, whereas non-finite verbs do not. Finite verbs always agree with the subject in person and number, as seen in (4) and (5). On the other hand, non-finite verb forms can express only aspect or voice (Dušková 2003, 165). For instance:

- (4) *He **loves** his wife.*
- (5) *They **were** with me.*
- (6) *I have never **seen** him before.*
- (7) *Mary was **sitting** there for a long time.*

Finite verbs have a sentence function of predicate (8), while non-finite verbs can have other except for the predicative one (9) (Dušková 2003, 165). For example:

(8) *I read books every day.*

(9) *To read books is edifying.*

## 1.2 Voice as a verb category

Voice is one of the grammatical categories of a verb, apart from aspect, tense and mood. It can be defined as “a grammatical category which makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in either two ways, without change in the facts reported” (Quirk et al. 2004, 159). Veselovská and Emonds (2011a, 72) describe voice as a category “related to the distribution of the semantic roles among verbal arguments.” According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1427), voice “applies to a system where the contrastive forms differ in the way semantic roles are aligned with syntactic functions, normally with some concomitant marking on the verb.” Voice can be active or passive and the main differences between these two types will be described in the chapter below.

## 1.3 Features of the passive voice

Firstly, the change of the sentence from the active voice to the passive impacts the verb phrase as well as other sentence members (Quirk et al. 2004, 159). The following paragraphs will deal with the basic syntactic and semantic differences between active and passive voice.

### 1.3.1 Syntactic features

#### 1.3.1.1 Verbal valency

Primarily, an essential element of a sentence in terms of passive is an object. It depends on the valency of a verb, which determines its semantic and syntactic subcategorization. Basically, subcategorization dictates obligatory complementation of the verb (Veselovská and Emonds 2011b, 8). For example:

(1) *A dog barked.*

(2) *Olga bought [a car.]<sup>NP, PATIENT</sup>*

(3) *Adam gave [me]<sup>NP, RECIPIENT</sup> [a book.]<sup>NP, PATIENT</sup>*

In the example (1), the verb *bark* is called intransitive verb because it does not require any other element after the verb and so the sentence is grammatical. Due to the fact that the verb does not require an object, the passive construction is not possible. On the other hand, the verb *bought* in (2) is the example of a monotransitive verb as it requires one complement, in this case noun phrase with semantic role of patient. Similarly, the verb *give* in (3) as a ditransitive verb has two obligatory elements, namely recipient and patient which have to follow the verb. Thus, passive transformation is possible only with transitive verbs (Veselovská and Emonds 2011a, 22).

### 1.3.1.2 Form of the passive

One of the main differences between active and passive voice can be seen in the verb phrase: the passive voice is formed by adding the verb *be* and a past participle of the lexical verb, as seen in (4) and (5). Sometimes the auxiliary *be* can be replaced by the verb *get*, as it will be discussed later (Quirk et al. 2004, 160). For instance:

(4) *Mary saw John.*

(5) *John was seen by Mary.*

The form of the auxiliary *be* depends on the tense and aspect of the main verb in an active sentence (Quirk et al. 2004, 159). For example:

(6) *He is looking for his dog.*

(7) *His dog is being looked for by him.*

(8) *John has been writing a book.*

(9) *A book has been being written by John.*

### 1.3.1.3 Sentence functions

Another important point is that the process of passivization reorganizes the sentence functions. Regarding the word order in English, the element which precedes the verb is the subject and the one which follows the verb is the object. As the object of the active sentence is passivized, it becomes the subject of the passive sentence. The subject of the active sentence becomes adjunct or adverbial (Quirk et al. 2004, 159-160). For example:

(10) [*They*]<sup>SUBJECT, AGENT</sup> finally found [*their lost cat.*]<sup>OBJECT, PATIENT</sup>

(11) [*Their lost cat*]<sup>SUBJECT, PATIENT</sup> was finally found [*by them.*]<sup>ADJUNCT, AGENT</sup>

In the active sentence (10), *they* precedes the verb *found*, so it is subject, and *their lost cat* follows the verb, so it is object. On the contrary, in the example of passive sentence in (11), the original active object *their lost cat* comes before the verb and consequently becomes subject, while the active subject *they*, if present, comes at the end of a sentence as the adjunct.

### 1.3.2 Semantic features

#### 1.3.2.1 Semantic roles

Generally, there are certain correlations between sentence functions and semantic roles. From the following examples, it can be seen that subject is usually agent (12) or experiencer (13), direct object has a semantic role of patient (14) or theme (15), indirect object is recipient (16) etc. (Veselovská and Emonds 2011b, 8). For instance:

(12) *The policeman shot the rubber.*

(13) *He enjoyed his favourite lunch.*

(14) *My mum gave a very interesting book to me.*

(15) *The fire crossed the road.*

(16) *He gave his wife a beautiful ring.*

However, the process of passivization breaks these correlations. It is due to the fact that the passivization changes the sentence functions, whereas the semantic roles are the same in both active and passive sentence. Thus, the object with the semantic role of patient in the active sentence becomes subject in the passive and the semantic role remains the same (Veselovská and Emonds 2011b, 22). For example:

(17) *He broke [the window]<sup>OBJECT, PATIENT</sup>*

(18) *[The window]<sup>SUBJECT, PATIENT</sup> was broken by him.*

In the example of active sentence (17), object *the window* is affected by the action and as such it is patient, but as it becomes subject in the passive sentence and remains still the patient (18), the usual correlations between sentence functions and semantic roles are changed.

## 1.4 Functions of passive

Passive voice has very frequent usage in English language. Unlike in Czech, many passive sentences are very spontaneous and natural. As seen in (1) and (2), some passive constructions which are used in English do not even exist in Czech language. For example:

(1) *The accident was talked about.*

(2) *\*Nehoda byla mluvena o.*

Nevertheless, according to Quirk et al. (2004, 166), the frequency in using the passive voice can be seen between informative and imaginative texts rather than between spoken and written English. According to them, passive voice is commonly used “in the objective, impersonal style of scientific articles and news reporting” (Quirk et al. 2004, 166). Similarly, Dušková (2003, 265) claims that passive voice is more frequent in professional and scientific style than in the spoken language. It is mainly due to the fact that passive voice allows deletion of the agent from the sentence, which is often preferred in the objective style.

According to Veselovská and Emonds (2011b, 23), there are two main functions of the passive voice in English; to delete the agent and to rhematize the agent. Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1428) refer to these as long and short passives, where long passive includes the agent as a complement and short passive lacks it.

### 1.4.1 Deagentivization

The deletion of the agent is considered as the main purpose of passive voice in English. In fact, Quirk et al. (2004, 164) state that “four out of five English passive sentences have no expressed agent.” Since English language has quite strict rules in terms of word order, it is quite complicated to delete the agent from the sentence as it is usually subject. Passive voice makes it possible. The agent in passive sentence becomes an adjunct and therefore can be omitted (Veselovská and Emonds 2011b, 23).

The passive without expressed agent is used mostly in the objective style, as already mentioned above, due to the fact these sentences often indicate general human agent instead of the concrete one (Dušková 2003, 259). For example:

(3) *It is widely accepted theory.*

(4) *It is believed that it was the right decision.*



(5) *It cannot be explained better.*

Correspondingly, it is used when the speaker wants to avoid subjects like *one, someone, people* etc. (Alexander 2005, 244). For instance:

(6) *The paper must be submitted on Monday.*

(7) *I was asked to explain where the bank is.*

Similarly, passive with no expressed agent usually implies “human knowledge in general” or “general propositions” (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1446). For example:

(8) *These methods have been tested successfully.*

(9) *Sample forms can be obtained from the information office during the office hours.*

Besides that, the speaker does not have to be completely sure about his statement or opinion, or wants to avoid responsibility (Alexander 2005, 243). For example:

(10) *It will be done by Friday.*

(11) *It is believed that he committed the crime.*

The passive sentence without the agent is preferred if the person who performs the action is not as important as the happening. The use this passive type implies that the speaker is more interested in the result than in the person who caused it. It emphasizes the situation and the agent is omitted (Alexander 2005, 243-244). For instance:

(12) *The window was broken.*

(13) *Our car was damaged.*

Another reason why the speaker chooses to omit the agent is that it is obvious who the doer of the action is and it is not necessary to mention it (Thomson and Martinet 1986, 266). For example:

(14) *He was arrested.*

(15) *The garbage hasn't been collected yet.*

There are also some cases when the agent is unknown and therefore the passive construction without it is preferred (Thomson and Martinet 1986, 266). For example:

(16) *The president was murdered.*

(17) *My bag was stolen.*

### 1.4.2 Rhematizing the Agent

On the contrary, the passive voice can be used if the speaker wishes to emphasize the agent or if it is necessary for the hearer to know who the performer of the action is. The emphasis is based on Functional sentence perspective, also called Sentence dynamism proposed by Prague Linguistic Circle, which suggests that there is the tendency to use old information at the beginning of the sentence and new or more important information at the end of the sentence. The old information is called the theme and the new or more important information is the rheme. As the agent is usually subject, it takes place at the beginning of the sentence and therefore it is theme. Using the passive sentence instead of its active equivalent makes it possible to put the agent from the position of the theme at the position of the rheme at the end of the sentence, and thus to rhematize it. Agent becomes adjunct and is preceded by preposition *by* or *with*. That is why the subject questions are often answered by a passive voice (Veselovská and Emonds 2011b, 23). For instance:

(18) *This machine was invented in 1888 by Dr. James.*

(19) *It was finally signed by the boss.*

(20) *Who wrote this book ? It was written by John.*

## 1.5 Types of passive

### 1.5.1 Get passive

Regarding the form of the passive, an auxiliary *be* can be sometimes replaced by the verb *get*. Apart from the fact that the passive with *get* is more commonly used in colloquial English than in formal style, there are some other specific cases when it is preferred (Quirk et al. 2004, 161). As Quirk et al. (2004, 161) suggest, *get* passive is used rather in sentences with no expressed agent, although it may not be unknown. For example:

(1) *The man got arrested last week.*

(2) *Mary got bitten in a garden.*

Secondly, *get* is preferred when it is easy to misinterpret the stative and dynamic meaning. The use of *get* expresses the dynamic meaning (Quirk et al. 2004, 162). For instance:

(3) *She got married last week.*

(4) *The glass of wine got broken.*

In fact, Huddleston and Pullum (2002, 1442) claim that *get* passive cannot be used with stative verbs but only with the dynamic verbs. For example:

(5) *It was generally known fact.*

(6) *\*It got generally known fact.*

Apart from that, Quirk et al. (2004, 161) point out the *get* passive is often used without the agent because of the emphasis which *get* puts on the “subject referent’s condition“, which is usually unfavourable. Therefore, they suggest that due to this same emphasis the *get* passive often implies “an unfavourable attitude towards the action” (Quirk et al. 2004, 161). For example, the sentence in (7) implies that the door should have stayed closed. Correspondingly, *get* is used in cases when “the subject-referent is seen as having an agentive role in the situation, or at least as having some responsibility for it” (Huddleston and Pullum 2002, 1442). The example can be seen in (8).

(7) *How did the door get opened ?*

(8) *John got caught.*

### 1.5.2 Double object structures

Concerning ditransitive verbs in English, they have two objects: direct and indirect.

The distinction of direct and indirect object can be recognized both semantically and syntactically. In terms of semantic roles, the direct object is usually patient while the indirect object is recipient, as seen in the example below:

(9) *John gave [a book]<sup>PATIENT</sup> [to Mary].<sup>RECIPIENT</sup>*

Patient *a book* is direct object and *Mary* as a recipient is indirect object. These two objects can appear also in reversed order, as in *John gave Mary a book*. From the semantic point of view, here *Mary* is still indirect object and *a book* a direct one.

However, according to Veselovská and Emonds (2011b, 19), the direct object in English is recognized syntactically, and thus the direct object also called structural object is the one that follows the verb immediately. This fact is crucial in terms of the passivization of ditransitive verbs as the structural object is considered the one which is passivized in English (Veselovská and Emonds 2011b, 22). Consequently, the passive equivalent depends on the active sentence and so which object immediately follows the verb, as seen in the examples:

(10) John gave **Mary** a book.

(11) **Mary** was given a book.

(12) John gave **a book** to Mary.

(13) **A book** was given to Mary.

To summarize that, both direct and indirect objects can be passivized in English supposing that both can occupy the position immediately following the verb (Veselovská and Emonds 2011b, 28).

### 1.5.3 Prepositional passive

A prepositional verb is a verb followed by a preposition. Unlike in Czech, it is possible to passivize the object of preposition in English supposed that the prepositional phrase is a complement (Dušková 2003, 251). It means that the prepositional phrase is required by a transitive verb. This obligatory complementation is determined by verbal subcategorization, as already mentioned above. In the following example, the verb *talk* requires the object, so it can be transformed into the passive:

(14) We talked about **the party** yesterday.

(15) **The party** was talked about yesterday.

On the other hand, the sentence below cannot have the passive equivalent, because the prepositional phrase is an adjunct, so that it is not obligatory element of the sentence:

(16) We talked **in the evening**.

(17)\***The evening** was talked in.

Regarding the passive of objects of preposition, there appears the phenomenon called Restructuring or Stranded Preposition. In some languages as English, the preposition can be separated from its object and can be attached to the verb. If the preposition is grouped together with the object, it becomes prepositional phrase and the verb is separated. But as authors suggest, a typical structure in Modern English is when the preposition is grouped with the verb rather than with its object, so the preposition is a part of a verb and functions as a one word. Therefore, while passivizing these structures, the preposition remains together with the verb and is stranded from its object (Veselovská and Emonds 2011b, 29-30). For instance:

(18) We sent **for a doctor**.

(19) *A doctor was sent for.*

(20) *\*For a doctor was sent.*

## 2 VERBO-NOMINAL STRUCTURES

Despite the fact that the verbo-nominal structures are very frequent and common in Present-day language, as Claridge (2000, 69) states, most of the studies related to this specific group have been focused on the particular type and its features rather than on the issue as a whole. Similarly Stein (1991, 2) suggests that in spite of their common usage they “have not yet received adequate scholarly attention.” Leech (2012, 166) assumes that one of the reasons of limited and unsystematic studies concerning the issues of verbo-nominal structures seem to be the fact that it is “a phenomenon at the borderline between syntax and lexicon” In other words, he indicates that the verb *have* is very productive in terms of combining with deverbial nouns but this productivity is at the same time partially constrained by some collocational aspects (Leech 2012, 166).

The absence of overall exploration of verbo-nominal structures results in the fact that there is no fixed term for this construction type, which makes the research process quite complicated<sup>1</sup> (Stein 1991, 2). Moreover, Claridge says that some terms are too general and unclear as they can represent also other categories such as verb-verb combinations, verb-adjective combinations etc. The term “take-have phrasal” is not very accurate as well as it suggests some relation to phrasal verbs and as a part of the combination considers only *take* and *have* (Claridge 2000, 70-71).

Besides that, various books deal with this category in different relation, it can be found within the chapters focused on verbs, for example under the term “light verbs” or “multi-word verbs,” objects, word formation or others. (Stein 1991, 2)

To sum up, it seems that scholars use different terms for their verbo-nominal structures according to the particular type of the combination and the aim they are focusing on.

### 2.1 General characteristics of verbo-nominal structures

Generally speaking, verbo-nominal structure consists of verb and the nominal part, for example:

- (1) *Let's take a walk.*
- (2) *Mary gave him a smile.*

Some of them are often followed by a preposition, for instance:

- (3) She **made use of** the opportunity.  
(4) Her mother does not **take care of** her at all.

However, as will be seen below, the issues of these combinations are much more complicated as there are various approaches to their definition as well as division. This chapter will describe basic characteristics of nouns and verbs which combine together to create a verbo-nominal structure.

### 2.1.1 Nominal part

Important feature of all the verbo-nominal structures is the fact that it is the noun which expresses the main or the whole meaning. As this nominal part stands right next to the verb, it is often called direct object, but this part is not affected by the verbal action but on the contrary expresses it. Thus, “while the noun certainly does not represent an object semantically and functionally, the syntactic surface structure makes it look like one” (Claridge 2000, 70-71).

However, Veselovská and Emonds (2011b, 31) suggest that due to the fact that this nominal part immediately follows the verb, it is the object and can be passivized. Generally, this ambiguity concerning the nominal part may stem from the different perceptions and consequently the division of these combinations. The issues of classification will be discussed later, but basically, the term object for the nominal part is accurate in terms of Group II, but as Veselovská and Emonds (2011b, 32) point out, there is a difference between verbo-nominal “complex predicates” and verbo-nominal “compound idioms,” in other words members of Group I, whose nominal parts are more “object-like” and cannot be passivized (Veselovská and Emonds 2011b, 32). For example:

- (5) Her boyfriend took **advantage** of her hesitation.  
(6) **Advantage** was taken of her hesitation.  
(7) Mary took **a walk** in the countryside.  
(8) \*A **walk** was taken in the countryside.

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<sup>1</sup> Claridge (2000, 70) mentions terms such as “complex verbal structures”, “complex predicate”, “expanded predicate”, “take-have phrasal”, “verb-object combination”, “V-N construction” or “verbo-nominal phrase.” Similarly, Stein (1991, 2) adds others, for example “group verbs”, “periphrastic verbal constructions” etc.

Regarding these syntactic and semantic features of the noun, Quirk et al. (2004, 750) call it “eventive object,” which appears in the form of deverbal noun and follows the verb. The term deverbal noun indicates that the noun is derived from the verb (Quirk et al. 2004, 1546-1547). This eventive object is “semantically an extension of the verb and bears the major part of the meaning” (Quirk et al. 2004, 750). Similarly Stein says that the simple verb of one sentence “appears in a nominalized form” in other sentence (1991, 1). Apart from that, it is said that noun which combines with the verb and the preposition “forms part of the idiom” (Quirk et al. 2004, 1159).

### 2.1.2 Verbal part

As the nominal part carries the major meaning, most linguists claim the verb is important only from the syntactic point of view, without which it would not be possible to create a grammatical sentence. Leech calls this verb as “a semantically reduced or light verb” (2012, 166) and some other linguists use the term “light” as well. Others describe verbal parts of these combinations as “verbs of vague or weakened meaning,” “lexically empty,” “purely or mainly connective,” “function verbs” etc. (Stein 1991, 7). Therefore the verbo-nominal structure consists of the verbs of general, common meaning, such as *take*, *make*, *give*, *have* or *put* (Claridge 2000, 71). Besides that, there are also combinations including verbs *pay*, *get*, *go* or *offer*, for example *pay a visit to*, *get a glance at*, *do a dance* or *offer a suggestion* (Quirk 2004, 751-752).

Regarding the semantic roles, subjects in the sentences with verbo-nominal structures are usually agents (9), experiencers (10) or recipients (11). Generally, subjects of combinations including verbs such as *do*, *make*, *offer*, *pay* and *put* have always semantic role of an agent (Quirk et al. 2004, 752). For instance:

(9) **John** took a walk with his dog.

(10) **She** had a horrible dream last night.

(11) **He** got a clear view of her.



## 2.2 Classification of verbo-nominal structures

Importantly, verbo-nominal structures can be divided according to various criteria.<sup>2</sup> Claridge (2000, 70-71) considers as a basic criterion for her classification the presence or absence of the preposition and its position in a sentence. This division includes three groups:

- Group I consists of V+NP, such as *take place, take a walk* or *have a look*
- Group II consists of V+NP+P, for example *take care of, take advantage of, set fire to* etc.
- Group III is comprised of V+PP, for example *put in execution, take into consideration* or *bring to light*

### 2.2.1 Group I: V+NP

As already mentioned above, this group is defined as a simple combination of a verb and a noun. However, most scholars tend to be more specific and define this group as a sequence of a verb, determiner and deverbal noun, in other words noun which is derived from verb. For example:

- (1) *You should take a deep breath.*
- (2) *We just had a horrible argument.*
- (3) *Mary finally made an agreement with the company.*
- (4) *You need to have a rest.*

General characteristics of verbs and nouns which form these combinations have been already mentioned above; however, there are some other points specific for this first group. Firstly, the members of this group can be both transitive and intransitive (Claridge 2000, 73).

In terms of verbs, despite the fact that there is quite large amount of verbs which can combine with nouns, Algeo takes into account only *have, make, take* and *give*, and Stein is even more restrictive as she works only with *give, have* and *take*. Besides that, as the verb is said to be rather semantically empty because it is the nominal part which includes the

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<sup>2</sup> Live uses as a basic criterion the character of the noun and completely overlooks prepositions. Brinton and Akimoto divide these verbo-nominal structures according to the articles, if they are present or not and according to their type (Claridge 2000, 70-71).

meaning, Stein and some other linguists believe that the verb plays an important role in the combination and has a particular effect on the whole meaning (Claridge 2000, 72).

As for the nominal part, some linguists take into account only those combinations which consist of zero-derivation nouns, while others admit also those created by derivation or those which have some clear relation to the verb.<sup>3</sup> Generally, comparing these nouns to the true verb-object structures, they are rather abstract than concrete (Claridge 2000, 72). In the examples below, nouns in (5) and (6) are abstract compared to example (7) where *evidence* represents physical thing, for example written paper.

(5) *Mary gave him a smile.*

(6) *I will give you a call.*

(7) *The policeman gave them the evidence.*

Supposing that the Group I is defined as combination of verb and noun including the determiner, these are usually indefinite articles. Live suggests that the combinations without determiners should be taken as a subcategory of the Group I (Claridge 2000, 72).

### 2.2.2 Group II: V+NP+P

Unlike the first case, Group II consists of verbo-nominal structures including prepositions. For example:

(8) *She took advantage of his ignorance.*

(9) *John made use of their offer.*

(10) *You should pay attention to every word.*

(11) *She completely lost sight of her aim.*

(12) *You will have to pay a high price for your mistake.*

Due to the fact that these combinations are always transitive, there needs to be an object in a sentence, so that preposition is used as a way how to add an object to the noun. As a result, if the sentence is to be grammatically correct, the preposition is obligatory. Nevertheless, it is quite complicated to determine when the preposition is obligatory due to the fact that members of Group I can be also transitive and as such can include the

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preposition as well. As far as Claridge is concerned, verbo-nominal structures have to fulfil two requirements to be included into the Group II, unless they belong to the Group I. Firstly, the preposition is obligatory when the verbo-nominal structure can never appear without it, which is when “the following element is a noun and not a clause” (Claridge 2000, 73). The second condition requires that the object attached to the noun “can be seen to be affected in the way the direct object of a simplex verb would be” (Claridge 2000, 73-74). She mentions following examples:

(13) *Make love to me, Jay.* (Claridge 2000, 74)

(14) *You can't make love at pistol point...* (Claridge 2000, 74)

(15) *He would also be expected to pay a premium to put an end to the chaos.* (Claridge 2000, 74)

(16) *\*He would also be expected to pay a premium to put an end.* (Claridge 2000, 74)

The example in (13) shows that the object *me* is affected in the way that it can be passivized and also replaced by corresponding simple verb, *love me*. (Claridge 2000, 74) However, based on the example (14), combination *make love* belongs to the Group I as it can appear without an object and thus without a preposition. Contrarily, structure *put an end to* clearly belongs to the Group II as it requires an object and without it the sentence would not be correct. Veselovská and Emonds (2011a, 76) claim that “when the combination is obligatory or idiomatic or assigns a semantic role, it is said that the verbs lexically select the NPs, PPs...” Therefore, it might be concluded that the combination belongs to the Group II when the preposition is selected. To sum up, Claridge (2000, 75) admits that “the borderline between Groups I and II is rather fuzzy and also permeable.” She also adds that there are some combinations which are member of both groups, for example *take care (of)* or *give an account (of)* as it is connected to some semantic differentiation (Claridge 2000, 75).

### 2.2.3 Group III: V+PP

Members of this group can be transitive as well as intransitive. Examples of intransitive structures are *come to an end*, *come to light* or *be in doubt*. Similarly to the Group II, transitive combinations contain extra preposition in order to attach the object of the whole combination (17) or additional object as in case of *put in mind* in (18) (Claridge 2000, 76). For example:

(17) *Their vision stood in need of people and justice.*

(18) *His face puts me in mind of her mother.*

Another important point regarding this group is the fact that the preposition can be separated from the whole combination (19) or from its object, in other words, these structures allow stranded preposition (20) (Claridge 2000, 76). For instance:

(19) *This meant that the new “natural philosophy” stood in need, not merely of practical development, but also of intellectual justification and explanation.* (Claridge 2000, 76)

(20) *...both shopping expedition and holiday were what she stood in need of.* (Claridge 2000, 76)

Apart from that, it is quite common that the direct object of the whole combination comes between the verb and the prepositional phrase, as seen in (21) instead of standing behind the whole combination (22). Moreover, if the object is heavy, it cannot immediately follow the verb and the object comes at the end of the combination (23) (Claridge 2000, 76-77).

(21) *We have to take her wish into consideration.*

(22) *We have to take into consideration her wish.*

(23) *We have to take into consideration the long term effects of releasing carbon into the atmosphere, using fossil fuels and deforestation.*

### 3 INNER AND OUTER PASSIVE

In general, verbo-nominal structures which are members of Group II, in other words those which consist of V+NP+P, allow two passive transformations as they take two complements (Claridge 2000, 80). For example:

(1) *They finally took **advantage** of **their special knowledge**.*

The first type of passive is called regular passive (Quirk 2004, 1158) or inner passive (Claridge 2000, 80) and is based on the noun which is the part of the combination and immediately follows the verb. This nominal part becomes the subject of the passive sentence, as seen in the example below:

(2) ***Advantage** was finally taken of their special knowledge.*

The second type of passive is called prepositional or irregular passive (Quirk 2004, 1158) or more commonly outer passive (Claridge 2000, 80), where the object of the whole verbo-nominal structure is passivized and thus becomes the subject of the passive sentence, for instance:

(3) ***Their special knowledge** was finally taken advantage of.*

Nunberg et al. (1994, 520) assume that the possibility of double passive transformation results from the attitudes towards these combinations. Firstly, the whole verbo-nominal structure can be seen as “a morphologically complex transitive verb,” from the second point of view, the verb is comprised only of the verb of general meaning and the following noun phrase takes the form of the object of this verb. Thus, “the double analysis of the active will allow two passives to be generated (Nunberg et al. 1994, 520). Furthermore, they propose that apart from the idiomatic meanings of the verb and the noun combining together, giving the example of *take advantage*, “there is lexical entry – an idiomatic phrase..., which takes a PP complement headed by *of* and permits a prepositional passive...” (Nunberg et al. 1994, 520). Interestingly, they do not consider the preposition as the part of the verb as the combination can sometimes appear without it, as it will be discussed later in this thesis (Nunberg et al. 1994, 520).

## **II. ANALYSIS**

## 1 METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

The aim of the research is to find out the possibility of passivization of verbo-nominal structures in question, as these are said to allow two types of passive, inner and outer. Furthermore, I will deal with features which can possibly influence the passive transformation based on the obtained results. This chapter will describe the process of the research. For the purposes of this paper British National Corpus (BNC) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) were used.

The first step was to create a list of the most commonly used and widely known verbo-nominal combinations. Generally, I focused on combinations consisting of verb, noun and preposition. Following the Clardige's classification, these belong to Group II, however, the list includes combinations which can be classified as members of both Groups I and II as some of them can also appear without the preposition. Importantly, as will be seen later, the obligatoriness of the preposition does not influence the passive transformation. In fact, this research considers commonly used verbo-nominal structures including prepositions, regardless the fact that the combinations can appear without it. For searching for the specific verbo-nominal structures British National Corpus was used. The goal was to find at least 50 various verbo-nominal combinations. Specifically, I worked with the sequence **take [nn\*] [i\*]**.

As far as the verb is concerned, I have been choosing those which are commonly known and used as participants in the combination with noun and preposition, such as *take, pay, make, give, lose* etc. Then, I went through the specific examples. To make the list more diverse, I have chosen the most frequently used combinations from each verb.

After the list of structures was completed, I started to investigate if these combinations allow inner, outer or both types of passive. Using the example *take advantage of*, for inner passive, I worked with the sequence of

**advantage [vb\*] taken of.**

For the outer passive, the sequence of

**[vb\*] taken advantage of**

was used. After I checked the results, I recorded them into the table. To notice potential variations, I repeated the whole process in the Corpus of Contemporary American English as well.

## 2 RESULTS

The table below records the frequencies of inner and outer passives obtained from the British National Corpus and the Corpus of Contemporary American English. At the top of the table, verbo-nominal structures which allow both types of passives can be found. Combinations allowing only the inner passive come after and are followed by those which permit only the outer passive. At the end of the table are structures which do not allow any type of passive transformation.

*Tab. 1 Frequencies of inner and outer passives*

V-N STRUCTURE	BNC		COCA		TOTAL	
	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive
→take advantage of	12	15	2	184	14	199
take account of	41	12	17	5	58	17
→take care of	3	79	1	959	4	1038
→pay attention to	123	2	200	20	323	22
make use of	97	20	28	10	125	30
→make sense of	1	2	1	1	2	3
→take note of	4	1	2	2	6	3
→give effect to	3	3	1	0	4	3
→give priority to	37	1	27	0	64	1
pay compensation for	1	0	1	0	2	0
make provision for	83	0	16	0	99	0
make arrangements for	27	0	25	0	52	0
make decisions about	5	0	27	0	32	0
make progress in	32	0	61	0	93	0
make recommendations for	2	0	15	0	17	0
make allowance for	46	0	8	0	54	0
make reference to	89	0	60	0	149	0
give reasons for	11	0	13	0	24	0
give notice of	3	0	2	0	5	0
pay tribute to	10	0	7	0	17	0
pay interest on	11	0	7	0	18	0
take action against	20	0	26	0	46	0
offer support to	2	0	2	0	4	0
put pressure on	24	0	35	0	59	0
put emphasis on	20	0	33	0	53	0
give advice on	4	0	0	0	4	0
take responsibility for	2	0	0	0	2	0
pay regard to	3	0	0	0	3	0
pay compensation to	3	0	0	0	3	0
offer opportunities for	1	0	0	0	1	0
set eyes on	0	0	2	0	2	0



put an end to	0	0	2	0	2	0
offer advice on	0	0	4	0	4	0
pay homage to	0	0	2	0	2	0
make fun of	0	1	0	68	0	69
<b>lose sight of</b>	0	12	0	15	0	27
take charge of	0	1	0	1	0	2
take hold of	0	0	0	2	0	2
<b>set fire to</b>	0	0	0	2	0	2
<b>get hold of</b>	0	0	0	2	0	2
give rise to	0	0	0	0	0	0
pay increase for	0	0	0	0	0	0
make excuse for	0	0	0	0	0	0
take control of	0	0	0	0	0	0
take possession of	0	0	0	0	0	0
give way to	0	0	0	0	0	0
lose touch with	0	0	0	0	0	0
lose control of	0	0	0	0	0	0
lose interest in	0	0	0	0	0	0
get access to	0	0	0	0	0	0
catch sight of	0	0	0	0	0	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	720	149	627	1271	1347	1420

## 2.1 Criteria considered in relation to the possibility of passivization

### 2.1.1 Preposition

The first fact resulting from the table above is that the possibility of both types of passives, inner and outer, does not seem to be dependent on the obligatoriness of the preposition. In other words, it is obvious that the preposition must be present in order to form outer passive as it is based on the object of the whole combination, which is attached to it with the help of preposition. However, the fact that the combination can exist also without the preposition does not influence the passivizability of the combination in question as such. The verbo-nominal structures which will be used to support this claim are marked by the arrows in the *Tab. 1*. The first example is the structure **take advantage of**, which allows both types of passives, inner (*advantage was taken of...*) as well as outer (*...was taken advantage of*) in BNC and COCA. Based on BNC, this verbo-nominal combination can occur also without the preposition, as seen in the examples:

- (1) (a) *It's embarrassing and they take advantage especially at parties where some girls have had a lot to drink.* [BNC:1992:CH1:W\_newsp\_tabloid]

(b)...we have tended to become a dumping ground in which foreign manufacturers **take advantage**, and so import duties could be used to protect our jobs against this. [BNC:1985:G0C:W\_commerce]

The combination **take care of** also allows inner (*care was taken of...*) and outer passive (*...was taken care of*) in both BNC and COCA. Moreover, it is even clearer example as it commonly appears without the preposition, although the frequency of its inner passive is much lower than in the previous case. The examples without prepositions can be seen below:

(2) (a) *there are occasions when they are expected to appear' tough' and **take care** to adjust their vocabulary and presentation according to their audience.* [BNC:1993:EEC:W\_ac\_polit\_law\_edu]

(b)... *there is the ordinary duty of a person to **take care** either that his animal or his chattel is not put to such a use as...* [BNC:1991:FSS:W\_ac\_polit\_law\_edu]

Other examples are **pay attention to**, **make sense of** and **take note of**. These structures also permit double passive transformation in both BNC and COCA even though BNC found examples without prepositions. For instance:

(3) (a) *It is important that those who are concerned about the possibility of injustice **pay attention**.* [BNC:1991–1992:HHX:W\_hansard]

(b) *Or, conversely, do alleged causes finally need to **make sense** in a system of rules and rational choices?* [BNC:1991:EDD:W\_ac\_polit\_law\_edu]

(c) *Anti-Drink Drive campaigners say the brewing industry should **take note**.* [BNC:date:K1S:W\_news\_script]

To sum up, 7 verbo-nominal structures from the table allow double passives in both BNC and COCA. Importantly, 5 combinations out of these 7 do not have to necessarily appear with the preposition.

Verbo-nominal combinations **give effect to** and **give priority to** allow the inner passive (*effect/priority was given to...*) in BNC as well as COCA, but examples of outer passives (*...was given priority/effect to*) were found only in BNC. The preposition with these combinations is not obligatory either, as seen in the examples:

(4) (a) *These regulations which will **give effect** at the European council directive of December the sixth...* [BNC:1994:JSF:S\_parliament]

(b) *We have to **give priority** where it's due.* [BNC:date:CF9:W\_newsp\_other\_sports]

Besides the obligatoriness of the preposition, it seems necessary to mention that 6 out of 7 combinations which allow double passive transformation in BNC as well as COCA include the preposition *of*. Apart from that, there are 3 combinations which allow only the outer passive in both BNC and COCA and those include *of* as well, namely *make fun of*, *lose sight of* and *take charge of*. Correspondingly, COCA records the examples of outer passives of *take hold of* and *get hold of*. Nevertheless, the larger amount of structures containing the preposition *of* should be analyzed for not considering this as the coincidence.

### 2.1.2 Verb

Secondly, an important point which the research shows is that the possibility of both types of passives does not have anything to do with the selection of the verb which combines with nominal part and the preposition. The examples in the *Tab. 1* are marked with red colour. As can be seen, double passives appear with *take*, *pay*, *make* and also *give*. Some examples are illustrated below:

(5) (a) *Pergamon was an imposing hillside city and full **advantage was taken of** this dramatic site.* [BNC:1992:HWB:W\_misc]

(b) *I don't appreciate the fact that my grandmother has been **taken advantage of**.*  
[BNC:1993:JY6:W\_fict\_prose]

(6) (a) *Little public **attention was paid to** rural poverty before Rowntree undertook a survey in 1912.* [BNC:1991:EE9:W\_non\_ac\_soc\_science]

(b) *...and therefore the planning considerations that have been mentioned need to be **paid attention to**.* [BNC:1994:J41:S\_meeting]

(7) (a) *Finally, extensive **use was made of** published sources which for BR in particular are quite voluminous.* [BNC:1988:K8X:S\_commerce]

(b) *This last fact **is made use of** in achieving highly accurate potential-difference ratios.* [BNC:1987:K90:W\_ac\_tech\_engin]

Apart from the verbs mentioned above, inner passive commonly occur with *put* (4) and the examples with *offer* were also found (5), for instance:

(8) *Great **pressure was put on** a number of the signatories to take their names off.*  
[BNC:1992:H91:W\_non\_ac\_polit\_law\_edu]

(9) *Additional support is offered to parents whose child is exhibiting temperament-related behavioral problems.* [COCA:1988:ACAD:SchoolPsych]

Moreover, outer passive can be found with *lose* (6), *get* (7) and *set* (8) as well. For example:

(10) *...and the all-pervading duties of citizenship are lost sight of in the wilderness of interests of both individuals and groups'.* [BNC:1990:B1T:W\_non\_ac\_soc\_science]

(11) *And if they can not be got hold of, then it has to be their substitutes, in the form of innocent truck drivers.* [COCA:2004:NEWS:AssocPress]

(12) *The homes were looted and then they were set fire to.*  
[COCA:1999:SPOK:CBS\_Sixty]

This conclusion is yet influenced by the fact that I have excluded combinations with *have* as *have* does not allow passive at all (Quirk et al. 2004, 1177). Generally, it might be concluded that double passives appear the most frequently with *take* and *make*.

### 2.1.3 Noun

The following Tab. 2 refers to the chapters below dealing with the origin and the possibility of modification of the nominal part of the combination.

Tab. 2 Frequencies of inner and outer passives in relation to the noun

NOUN	V-N STRUCTURE	BNC		COCA	
		Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive
WITH SUFFIX	<b>take action against</b>	20	0	26	0
	pay compensation for	1	0	1	0
	<b>make provision for</b>	83	0	16	0
	make arrangements for	27	0	25	0
	<b>make decisions about</b>	5	0	27	0
	make recommendations for	2	0	15	0
	<b>make allowance for</b>	46	0	8	0
	<b>make reference to</b>	89	0	60	0
	<b>take responsibility for</b>	2	0	0	0
	pay compensation to	3	0	0	0
	take possession of	0	0	0	0
	→ <b>give priority to</b>	37	1	27	0
WITHOUT SUFFIX	<b>take advantage of</b>	12	15	2	184
	<b>take account of</b>	41	12	17	5
	<b>take care of</b>	3	79	1	959

pay attention to	123	2	200	20
<b>make use of</b>	97	20	28	10
make sense of	1	2	1	1
<b>take note of</b>	4	1	2	2
give effect to	3	3	1	0
make progress in	32	0	61	0
<b>give reasons for</b>	11	0	13	0
<b>give notice of</b>	3	0	2	0
<b>pay tribute to</b>	10	0	7	0
pay interest on	11	0	7	0
<b>offer support to</b>	2	0	2	0
<b>put pressure on</b>	24	0	35	0
<b>put emphasis on</b>	20	0	33	0
give advice on	4	0	0	0
<b>pay regard to</b>	3	0	0	0
<b>offer opportunities for</b>	1	0	0	0
set eyes on	0	0	2	0
put an end to	0	0	2	0
offer advice on	0	0	4	0
pay homage to	0	0	2	0
→make fun of	0	1	0	68
→lose sight of	0	12	0	15
→take charge of	0	1	0	1
→take hold of	0	0	0	2
→set fire to	0	0	0	2
→get hold of	0	0	0	2
give rise to	0	0	0	0
pay increase for	0	0	0	0
make excuse for	0	0	0	0
take control of	0	0	0	0
give way to	0	0	0	0
lose touch with	0	0	0	0
lose control of	0	0	0	0
lose interest in	0	0	0	0
get access to	0	0	0	0
catch sight of	0	0	0	0
<b>TOTAL</b>	720	149	627	1271

### 2.1.3.1 Modification of the noun

An important fact which seems to have an effect on passivization of verbo-nominal structures is the possibility of modification of the noun which is part of the combination

(Akimoto 2002, 18). Nunberg et al. (1994, 521), who studied these verbo-nominal structures in relation to their idiomaticity propose so called “double entry analysis,” as already mentioned above.<sup>4</sup> According to this approach, it is possible to form the outer passive as the whole verbo-nominal combination can be perceived as “idiomatic phrase” or simply one unit which is accompanied by the prepositional object. Due to its high degree of idiomaticity, the combination of verb and noun is more fixed and consequently, the object of the preposition is passivized. Therefore, the combinations which frequently allow outer passive are said to be more semantically opaque (Nunberg et al. (1994, 524). Based on this assumption, it should not be possible to modify the noun inside the combination. Using the example *take care of*, whose outer passive is far frequent than inner passive in both BNC and COCA, it is quite surprising that the noun as a part of the combination can be modified by an adjective or quantifier. This might be the reason of the existence of its inner passive; due to the possibility of modification of the noun inside the combination, “the idiomatic bond is weakened, and it is easier...to separate the object from the rest of the construction by the regular passive transformation,” in other words inner passive appears (Quirk et al. 2005, 1160). Similarly, Akimoto (2002, 18) points out that “the degree of the fusion” of the noun and the verb “can be largely determined by whether the noun can be modified or not,” which means that if the noun can be modified, this fusion is broken and the noun can be easily passivized, which is the case of the inner passive. Another example is *take advantage of*, which is much more frequently used in outer passive, especially in COCA. *Advantage* is often modified in the combination, which might have allowed the formation of the inner passive. To sum up, the possibility of the modification of the noun which is part of the combination can contribute to the formation of its inner passive. The facts mentioned above may also account for the fact that the modification commonly appears in the inner passives, while no examples of noun modification in the outer passives were noticed in BNC or COCA. In particular, 20 out of all analyzed combinations included

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<sup>4</sup> Nunberg et al. (1994, 523), claim that there can appear some difference in the meaning resulting from the two points of view on these structures. Using the example *take care of*, if seen as the idiomatic combination, *care* means simply “look after”, on the other hand, if taken as the idiomatic phrase, this meaning is missing and *care* obtains different one, for example “murder.” Thus, it is said that the outer passive can be used only in cases when the meaning does not correspond with the meaning of idiomatic combination, because the outer passive is based on the idiomatic phrase (Nunberg et al. 1994, 523). For example, we can say *The traitor has been already taken care of*, but this meaning of “murder” cannot be used in inner passive, as in *care has been already taken of the traitor*.

modification by adjective or a quantifier in the inner passive, which is when the noun becomes the subject of the passive. Apart from *take advantage of* and *take care of*, other combinations which included noun modification in inner passive are marked with red colour in the *Tab. 2* above. Some examples can be seen below:

- (13) (a) ...has been written about the wonders of the Roman road system that probably **not enough allowance is made for** their often poor condition.  
[BNC:1990:H7Y:W\_ac\_humanities\_arts]
- (b) The official launch in Dungannon was tinged with sadness, however, when **a silent tribute was paid to** tragic Sinead Murphy, the 1991 Ulster Rose, who was killed... [BNC:date:HJ4:W\_newsp\_others\_report]
- (c) **Insufficient regard is paid to** the demands of the public. [BNC:1981:B0L:W\_misc]
- (d) This hundred name petition against the dump concludes that **not enough notice was given of** the plans. [BNC:date:K1Y:W\_news\_script]
- (e) ...**relatively high use is made of** the NFA recommendation, and a wider range of services are both... [BNC:date:ALN:W\_ac\_soc\_science]

Correspondingly, Nunberg et al. (1994, 521), using the example *take advantage of*, admit that 47 out of 71 of its inner passives (*advantage was taken of...*) included some kind of noun modification, while modification with outer passives (*...was taken advantage of*) counts only 3 examples out of 1200. Importantly, they attribute the occurrence of the modification with outer passive to the fact that some English speakers might have adopted the modifier as a part of the verb, especially in the case of *take full advantage* and *take unfair advantage* (Nunberg et al. 1994, 522).

### 2.1.3.2 Origin of the noun

Furthermore, the origin of the noun as a part of the verbo-nominal structure seems to have a significant effect on the double passive transformation (Akimoto 2002, 12). Verbo-nominal structures which will be mentioned in this section are marked with an arrow in the *Tab. 2* above. Although the majority of combinations on the list consist of nouns without suffixes, there are also those created by suffixation. Importantly, from the total amount of 12 combinations containing nouns with suffix, only one, namely *give priority to*, permits outer passive (*...was given priority to*) in COCA with 1 record. Except for this

combination, all the structures allowing double passive transformation consist of zero-derivation nouns.

Similarly, combinations *lose sight of*, *make fun of* and *take charge of*, which can be transformed only into the outer passive in BNC as well as COCA, consist of nouns without suffix. Besides that, COCA records the outer passives of 3 combinations which also include nouns without suffix, namely *take hold of*, *set fire to* and *get hold of*.

Thus, it might be summarized that the verbo-nominal structures which consist of noun with suffix have tendency to allow the inner passive rather than the outer one.

Akimoto (2002, 12-14) claims that the combinations including nouns with suffix tend to allow only inner passive due to their “strong nouniness,” which is caused by the presence of the suffix. As a result, he suggests that “deverbal nouns with suffixes... are not suitable as constituents in idiomatic phrases, their fusion into the verbal phrase as a whole being prevented” (Akimoto 2002, 14). Following Nunberg et al. (1994) and his “double entry analysis” which was already discussed above, the combinations including nouns with suffixes are less idiomatic as they are not considered as fixed units, but simple combination of verb and noun. Thus, in case of those verbo-nominal structures which include noun created by suffixation, it is easy to form the inner passive as the noun and the same time the object can be easily separated from the verb and passivized. On the other hand, the combinations consisting of the nouns without suffixes are more idiomatic, so it is easier to form the outer passive when the whole combination remains together and the prepositional object is passivized.

#### 2.1.4 Frequency

The table below shows the frequencies of inner and outer passives in relation to the frequencies of verbo-nominal structures. The combinations in the table are arranged according their frequencies found in BNC, from the most frequently used to the less frequently used combinations.



Tab. 3 Frequencies of inner and outer passives in relation to the frequency of the verbo-nominal structure

V-N STRUCTURE	Frequency	Inner passive	Outer passive	Frequency	Inner passive	Outer passive
	BNC			COCA		
take advantage of	1045	12	15	5367	2	184
take account of	840	41	12	329	17	5
→give rise to	705	0	0	708	0	0
make use of	668	97	20	1027	28	10
take care of	535	3	79	12142	1	959
→get hold of	478	0	0	415	0	2
make sense of	373	1	2	1877	1	1
put an end to	268	0	0	1174	2	0
give way to	246	0	0	686	0	0
set fire to	197	0	0	444	0	2
→take responsibility for	190	2	0	1167	0	0
put pressure on	184	24	0	666	35	0
pay tribute to	168	10	0	295	7	0
pay attention to	153	123	2	2493	200	20
give effect to	151	3	3	29	1	0
take charge of	144	0	1	486	0	1
lose sight of	134	0	12	603	0	15
take note of	128	4	1	329	2	2
→take control of	107	0	0	891	0	0
set eyes on	104	0	0	116	2	0
→take hold of	94	0	0	224	0	2
make provision for	88	83	0	27	16	0
give priority to	80	37	1	110	27	0
take action against	72	20	0	169	26	0
make arrangements for	68	27	0	86	25	0
give reasons for	61	11	0	17	13	0
take possession of	55	0	0	136	0	0
give advice on	55	4	0	34	0	0
catch sight of	49	0	0	140	0	0
get access to	46	0	0	376	0	0
lose touch with	38	0	0	113	0	0
→make fun of	37	0	1	877	0	68
pay interest on	37	11	0	69	7	0
make reference to	35	89	0	94	60	0
give notice of	34	3	0	8	2	0
lose control of	33	0	0	216	0	0
lose interest in	29	0	0	158	0	0
make decisions about	28	5	0	404	27	0

offer advice on	28	0	0	53	4	0
pay homage to	27	0	0	219	2	0
pay compensation to	27	3	0	13	0	0
make progress in	24	32	0	49	61	0
make recommendations for	23	2	0	71	15	0
make allowance for	22	46	0	37	8	0
make excuse for	16	0	0	78	0	0
pay compensation for	15	1	0	19	1	0
offer opportunities for	13	1	0	55	0	0
offer support to	10	2	0	28	2	0
pay increase for	9	0	0	13	0	0
pay regard to	8	3	0	1	0	0
put emphasis on	5	20	0	25	33	0

Based on these results, it can be stated that the double passive transformation is likely to appear with those combinations which are generally more frequently used. For example, *take advantage of* and *take account of*, which have the highest frequency in BNC, allow both types of passives. Similarly, *take advantage of*, *take care of* and *pay attention to* with the highest usage in COCA allow double passive transformation.

Regarding BNC, the most visible exception is *give rise to* as its frequency is around 700, but no passive transformation was found. In a similar way, *get hold of* with the frequency over 400 have no any type of passive. Concerning COCA, *take responsibility for* does not allow any type of passive despite its high frequency which counts over 1100. Another exception is *take control of*, whose frequency is nearly 900.

With reference to the *Tab. 3*, as the frequency of the combination lowers, the occurrence of the outer passive is reduced as well and only the inner passive is usually allowed. Interestingly, *make fun of* appears in outer passive despite its low frequency in BNC and correspondingly *take hold of* permits outer passive while its frequency in COCA counts 224.

## 2.2 Comparison of BNC and COCA

The following table compares the results obtained from BNC and COCA. White colour suggests that the records of the passives found in BNC and COCA correspond. On the other hand, different colour indicates that there are some differences between the occurrences of certain type of passive.

Tab. 4 Comparison of the results obtained from BNC with the results from COCA

V-N STRUCTURE	BNC		COCA	
	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive
take advantage of	12	15	2	184
take account of	41	12	17	5
take care of	3	79	1	959
pay attention to	123	2	200	20
make use of	97	20	28	10
make sense of	1	2	1	1
take note of	4	1	2	2
give effect to	3	3	1	0
give priority to	37	1	27	0
pay compensation for	1	0	1	0
make provision for	83	0	16	0
make arrangements for	27	0	25	0
make decisions about	5	0	27	0
make progress in	32	0	61	0
make recommendations for	2	0	15	0
make allowance for	46	0	8	0
make reference to	89	0	60	0
give reasons for	11	0	13	0
give notice of	3	0	2	0
pay tribute to	10	0	7	0
pay interest on	11	0	7	0
take action against	20	0	26	0
offer support to	2	0	2	0
put pressure on	24	0	35	0
put emphasis on	20	0	33	0
give advice on	4	0	0	0
take responsibility for	2	0	0	0
pay regard to	3	0	0	0
pay compensation to	3	0	0	0
offer opportunities for	1	0	0	0
set eyes on	0	0	2	0
put an end to	0	0	2	0
offer advice on	0	0	4	0
pay homage to	0	0	2	0
make fun of	0	1	0	68
lose sight of	0	12	0	15
take charge of	0	1	0	1
take hold of	0	0	0	2
set fire to	0	0	0	2
get hold of	0	0	0	2

give rise to	0	0	0	0
pay increase for	0	0	0	0
make excuse for	0	0	0	0
take control of	0	0	0	0
take possession of	0	0	0	0
give way to	0	0	0	0
lose touch with	0	0	0	0
lose control of	0	0	0	0
lose interest in	0	0	0	0
get access to	0	0	0	0
catch sight of	0	0	0	0

Generally, it can be stated that if the inner or the outer passive of the certain verbo-nominal structure appears in BNC, it appears in COCA as well, or vice versa. However, there are some exceptions regarding certain combinations. For example, in BNC, examples of inner passive of *take responsibility for*, *give advice on*, *pay compensation to*, *pay regard to* and *offer opportunities for* were found, whereas COCA does not allow their inner passive transformation. On the other hand, records of inner passives of *pay homage to*, *offer advice on*, *set eyes on* and *put an end to* were found only in COCA. Interestingly, combinations *set fire to*, *take hold of* and *get hold of* allow the outer passive only in COCA, whereas combination *give effect to* allows the outer passive in BNC. With reference to the *Tab. 3*, these differences are not based on the frequencies of the combinations in question.

As BNC allows passive of some combinations and COCA of others, consequently, the number of combinations allowing inner or outer passive in BNC and those allowing these two types of passive transformations in COCA are almost the same, as seen in the table below.

*Tab. 5 Verbo-nominal structures allowing inner and outer passives in BNC and COCA*

Number of V-N structures from the list allowing passive transformation	BNC		COCA	
	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive
	30	12	29	13

With reference to *Tab. 6*, outer passive has higher frequency in COCA than in BNC. This is caused mainly by common usage of outer passive with *take care of* as its frequency counts 959, while BNC records 79 examples. Similarly, the outer passive with *take advantage of* in COCA counts 184 records, whereas BNC found 15. The same goes for

*make fun of* as BNC records only one example, contrary to COCA, which counts 68 outer passives. Moreover, these high frequencies regarding outer passives found in COCA are influenced by the high occurrence of the combination in question as such.

Tab. 6 Total frequencies of inner and outer passives in BNC and COCA

Total frequency of passive transformations	BNC		COCA	
	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive
	720	149	627	1271

### 2.3 Comparison with other results

The following two tables include only those combinations from my list which could be found also in other studies dealing with passivization of verbo-nominal structures.

The Tab. 7 compares results from BNC and COCA with research of Minoji Akimoto (Akimoto 2002, 13). The data from his list are obtained from various written sources, Oxford English Dictionary on CD-ROM and also from Collins COBUILD Advanced Learner's Dictionary of British English on CD-ROM. Although his list consists of the frequencies of inner and outer passives from 17<sup>th</sup> to 20<sup>th</sup> century, I used only the most recent examples from 20<sup>th</sup> century.

Tab. 7 Comparison of the results obtained from BNC and COCA with results from COBUILD and OED

V-N structure	BNC		COCA		TOTAL		COBUILD+OED (20th century)	
	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive
lose sight of	0	12	0	11	0	23	0	3
make allowance for	46	0	8	0	54	0	8	0
make provision for	83	0	16	0	99	0	30	0
make use of	97	20	28	10	125	30	47	12
pay attention to	123	2	200	20	323	22	30	0
pay regard to	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0
put an end to	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	0
take advantage of	12	15	2	184	14	199	7	13
take care of	3	79	1	959	4	1038	2	71

The data obtained from BNC and COCA mostly similar to those of Minoji Akimoto. The main difference concerns the structure *pay attention to*, which allows outer passive in BNC as well as COCA, but no example was found in 20<sup>th</sup> century. This may suggest that the

combination becomes more fixed than it was in the past. Apart from that, BNC records 3 examples of inner passive with *pay regard to*, while the second source does not show any type of passive transformation. Similarly, *put an end to* allows inner passive, while in 20<sup>th</sup> century this passive type did not appear.

The following *Tab. 8* compares the data from my list with the results of Nunberg et al. (1994, 533-534). Their investigation regarding double passive structures contains verbo-nominal combinations with *make* and *take* and there are not stated the frequencies of passive types, but the list consists of their judgements of acceptability or grammaticality of certain passive transformation.

*Tab. 8 Comparison of the results obtained from BNC and COCA with conclusions of Nunberg et al.*

V-N structure	BNC		COCA		TOTAL		NUNBERG, SAW, WASOW	
	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive	Inner passive	Outer passive
make allowance for	46	0	8	0	54	0	OK	?
make arrangements for	27	0	25	0	52	0	OK	*
make fun of	0	1	0	63	0	64	OK	OK
make sense of	1	2	1	1	2	3	OK	?
make use of	97	20	28	10	125	30	OK	OK
take action against	20	0	26	0	46	0	OK	*
take advantage of	12	15	2	184	14	199	OK	OK
take care of	3	79	1	959	4	1038	OK	OK
take hold of	0	0	0	2	0	2	*	OK
take note of	4	1	2	2	6	3	OK	OK

The passive types which were found in BNC and COCA correspond with judgements of Nunberg et al. There are only two differences; the table shows that the authors find the inner passive with *make fun of* acceptable, while it is not currently used in British or American English. Another difference concerns *make sense of* as another research suggests that its outer passive is doubtful.

## CONCLUSION

The main objective of this thesis was to find out the possibility of passivization of the chosen verbo-nominal structures, as they are said to allow two passives, inner and outer. My aim was to specify which features might have influenced the possibility of double passive formation and on other hand determine those which did not have the effect on the passivizability of verbo-nominal structures. Besides that, I dealt with comparison of data obtained from BNC with results from COCA and I also compared those results with other studies.

On the basis of the obtained results, double passive formation is possible despite the fact that the combination of verb and noun can appear without the preposition. While some verbo-nominal structures never appear without the preposition, for example *take account of*, other commonly do, for example *take care of*, and this does not have the effect on their passivizability.

Secondly, double passive formation is possible with variety of verbs which combine with nouns. Both inner and outer passives with the same verbo-nominal combination appear with *take, make, pay and give*. Apart from these, the inner passive can be formed also with *offer* and *put* and the outer passive is possible also with *lose, set* and *get*.

On the contrary, the noun which forms the verbo-nominal combination seems to influence the possible inner and outer passive transformation. The combinations comprising of nouns with suffixes are said to be less fixed and as such usually freely allow the inner passive, which is when the noun as a part of the combination is separated from the verb and becomes the subject of the passive sentence. Consequently, they rarely appear in outer passive. On the other hand, the combinations including nouns without suffixes are more idiomatic and are considered as one unit, so the outer passive can be formed more easily. Apart from that, if the noun which comprises the verbo-nominal structure can be modified, the combination becomes less idiomatic and the inner passive is possible. This result may account for the fact that the noun is often modified in inner passive.

Lastly, it may be stated that the frequency of the combination contributes to the double passive formation. Generally, the less the combination is used, the less it appears in inner and outer passive at the same time.

The results obtained from BNC correspond with those from COCA, which means that if the combination allows the inner, outer or both types of passives in one corpus, the same results appear in the other one. Outer passive with combinations such as *take advantage of*,

*take care of* and *make fun of* occurs much more frequently in COCA than in BNC, which is caused by the higher frequency of the combinations as such.

With a few exceptions, the results obtained from BNC and COCA are comparable with research of Minoji Akimoto (2002) and conclusions of Nunberg et al. (1994).



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